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Some Aspects of Public-School Finance

By PAUL E. SPAYDE

In a democracy, where the people must meet the responsibilities of citizenship, adequate educational opportunity for all is of paramount importance; to provide such educational opportunity requires money. Other conditions being equal, the cities which have the most money per pupil should provide the best educational programs. Wide disparities exist in the financing of public education in the cities of Ohio; these inequalities mean wide differences in educational opportunities for children. Because of economic interdependence, mobility of population, and many other factors, a denial of adequate educational opportunity in any part of Ohio will tend to bring ill results to all of Ohio and to the entire nation. If the objective is to provide greater equalization of educational opportunity, we should ask the question, Is our present system of educational finance the best we can hope to attain? In an attempt to answer this question, the writer, early in 1947, made a financial study of Ohio city school districts.[1]

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The study was limited to a consideration of school finance in the 113 Ohio city school districts during the years 1945 and 1946. Tax rates and assessed valuations for the year 1945 were used, as these were the bases upon which 1946 taxes were collected; expenditure items and average daily membership were for the school year 1945–46. These data were the latest available at the time the study was made. In view of the fact that cities occupy about the same relative positions year after year with respect to the various items included in this study, the

[1] Spayde, Paul E. "A Financial Study of Ohio City School Districts," 1947. Unpublished Master's thesis on file in the library of Ohio State University.

data used in comparing the cities were limited to a period of one year.[2]

The *Ohio General Code* stipulates that taxable property shall be assessed at its true cash value; this, however, is seldom the case. The fact that taxable property is assessed at other than its true value and that practices vary greatly from city to city means that assessed valuation and tax rates, used as measures of ability and effort, respectively, are not truly comparable for all the Ohio cities. In spite of this limitation, current school-tax rates and the valuation of taxable property appear to be the best means of studying the ability and effort of a school district.

THE main sources of public-school revenue in Ohio are the proceeds from local taxes and apportionments from state funds. Local revenue for the financial support of public schools may be derived from a school-tax levy within the ten-mill limitation or an additional levy voted outside the ten-mill limitation. Taxable property in Ohio consists of real estate, public utilities, and tangible personal property. Revenue from state funds is distributed under two provisions of the *General Code of Ohio:* Section 4848–1 provides for uniform distribution of state funds to each school district in Ohio, and Section 4848–3 provides for additional aid based on the School Foundation Program Law.

A summary of trends in public-school finance since the School Foundation Program Law became effective in 1936 reveals that the guaranteed minimum operating expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance provided for by the state in kindergarten and Grades I through VIII increased 50 per cent, and in Grades IX through XII, 20 per cent. The average assessed valuation per resident pupil increased 53.1 per cent, owing, in part, to decreasing enrollments. The average current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance increased 66.2 per cent. The most significant of these trends is the increase in current expenditures per pupil. Much of this increase can be attributed to the decrease in the purchasing power of the

[2] The primary source of data used in this study: *Certified Annual Financial Report of the Board of Education for the School Year Beginning July 1, 1945, and Ending June 30, 1946.* The second source is an annual mimeographed compilation by the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, entitled "Financial and Enrollment Data for Ohio City School Districts."

dollar; some of it may be due to an expanded educational program. Another important factor in the financial situation is that school-building programs have been almost at a standstill since 1941. This means that in most school districts, debt-service tax rates have been decreasing. Since the total school-tax rate has not changed appreciably, the proportion devoted to current operation has obviously increased.

A measure commonly used for comparison of ability to support public education is the assessed valuation of taxable property in relation to the number of pupils to be educated. The lowest per-pupil valuation among the 113 Ohio cities in 1945 was $2,995, the average was $10,561, and the highest was $31,059. Assuming equal tax rates, the city having the highest valuation per pupil could raise 10.37 times as much revenue per pupil as the city with the lowest per-pupil valuation, and approximately three times as much as the city having the average taxable wealth per pupil.

The current operating school-tax rate is a means of comparing relative efforts of school districts. But, since current expenditures for schools are only part of the expenditures for public services, they must be studied in relation to the school debt-service tax rate and the total tax rate for all purposes. The highest current operating school-tax rate in Ohio cities in 1945 was 12.35 mills; the average, 7.45 mills; and the lowest, 3.93 mills. The highest school debt-service tax rate was 7.39 mills; the average, 1.72 mills; and the lowest, 0.00 mills. A correlation coefficient of +0.41 between the tax rates for current operation and those for debt service in the 113 cities reveals that cities which have high tax rates for current expenditures often have high tax rates for debt service.

A measure of willingness to support public schools, in relation to the support of other public services in a school district, is the percentage of revenue from local taxation devoted to school purposes. An analysis of the tax rates for all purposes and those for schools reveals that one Ohio city devotes to its schools 80.49 per cent of the receipts from local taxation, whereas another Ohio city gives to its schools only 28.86 per cent.

As stated earlier, schools having the most money to spend should provide the most adequate educational program, other

conditions being equal. Many studies indicate that this is true. The highest current expenditure per pupil in average daily membership among the Ohio cities in 1945–46 was $237.16, the average was $135.50, and the lowest was $65.63, a ratio between lowest and highest of about 1:3.6. Expenditures for instruction and teachers' salaries show a quite similar ratio. The ratio of expenditures for auxiliary agencies to present estimated value of school lands, buildings, and equipment is much greater. This indicates that the "extras" in education and the valuation of the physical plant in which the children are educated are even more variable than total current expenditures. The rank coefficient of correlation between total current expenditures per pupil and present estimated value of school lands, buildings, and equipment was found to be +0.85. This high correlation reveals that, in general, schools which have the highest current expenditures per pupil have also the highest per-pupil valuation of school property.

Large differences in ability, effort, and current expenditures for public education in Ohio city school districts have been pointed out. The relationships among these differences are indicated by the following correlation coefficients:

Ability (assessed valuation per pupil) and effort (current school-tax rate)	−0.10
Ability (assessed valuation per pupil) and current expenditures per pupil	+.70
Effort (current school-tax rate) and current expenditures per pupil	+0.41

One would normally expect to find an inverse relationship between ability and effort; that is, the greater the wealth per pupil, the smaller the effort. The correlation coefficient (−0.10) indicates, however, only a slight inverse relationship. This can be interpreted to mean that many school districts, in spite of high valuations per pupil, apply relatively high school-tax rates in order, presumably, to provide a superior type of educational program. The second coefficient of correlation (+0.70) substantiates the assumption that one would normally make regarding the relationship between ability and expenditures. The relationship between effort and expenditures is a positive one but not extremely close, as indicated by the coefficient of +0.41.

IT CAN be seen, therefore, that ability and effort are both important factors in explaining present differences in educational expenditures among Ohio cities. Assuming a constant level of current expenditures, it is obviously necessary for the cities below average in ability to make an effort much greater than cities above average. In order to see this relationship, the statistical technique of partial correlation can be used to find the correlation coefficient between effort and ability with current expenditures held constant. This correlation coefficient was found to be −0.60. If one assumes for all Ohio cities identical current educational expenditures per pupil equal to the average expenditure in 1945–46 for these cities, and assumes further that the apportionments from the Foundation Program remain as they were in 1945–46, the local tax rate necessary to yield this average current expenditure in each district can be computed as follows: first, find the difference between the actual and the average current expenditure per pupil; second, divide this difference by the assessed valuation per pupil, the quotient being a positive or negative number of mills; and third, add algebraically the quotient and the actual current school-tax rate. The resulting sum is the computed tax rate necessary to yield the average current expenditure per pupil in each Ohio city school district for the 1945–46 school year. These computed current school-tax rates range from a low of 3.46 mills to a high of 29.85 mills.

Any sound basis for financing public education must be based on a uniform and equitable assessment of taxable property. School-tax rates should be looked upon as co-operative purchasing of public education. The burden of taxation should be borne by all people in all parts of the state in proportion to their ability to pay. The state should guarantee a minimum program of public education for all children; beyond this minimum, local initiative should be preserved.

In a program of state aid to public education, the following considerations are essential: first, differences in ability; second, a minimum effort desired from each school district; and third, a guaranteed minimum level of current operating expenditures. Suppose that one assures the guaranteed minimum per pupil to be $100 and the minimum effort desired of each school district to be three mills. In establishing a principle for the

apportionment of state aid per pupil, examples would be as follows:

City "A" (assessed valuation per pupil, $24,479)—	
Guaranteed minimum	$100.00
Minus (3 mills × $24,479)	73.44
State aid due per pupil	$ 26.56
City "B" (assessed valuation per pupil, $9,067)—	
Guaranteed minimum	$100.00
Minus (3 mills × $9,067)	27.20
State aid due per pupil	$ 72.80
City "C" (assessed valuation per pupil, $2,995)—	
Guaranteed minimum	$100.00
Minus (3 mills × $2,995)	8.99
State aid due per pupil	$ 91.01

These examples are intended merely to establish a principle. State aid for transportation and other special purposes would be in addition to aid for the usual current expenditures.

THE main advantage of the proposed program is that of equalization. The present program does not provide actual equalization up to any level; a four-mill tax levy for current expenditures yields more revenue per pupil in the wealthiest city than is currently guaranteed under the Foundation Program Law. Under the proposed plan, the revenue from a minimum effort would be deducted from the foundation, the result being the amount of state aid due school districts. This plan would require the same minimum effort of all districts and would consider the ability of each district to pay for public education.

Complete equalization of educational opportunity is probably not feasible or desirable in our economy. However, greater equalization can be attained only by more adequate financing of education and better equalization of the taxation burden. If an equitable system of taxation were set up, in which people were taxed according to their ability to pay, and if the state guaranteed a program of expenditures for public education equal to the present average of all Ohio cities, opportunities now denied to many children could be provided.

Articles in Popular Magazines on the Care of Young Children

By OLIVE WOODRUFF[1]

WISE persons have long recognized the importance of the early years in the nurture of children. The experiences of the child before his sixth birthday largely determine not only his physical, but also his mental, emotional, and social characteristics. During the last few decades, studies made by physicians, nutritionists, psychologists, and other specialists have provided overwhelming documentation for this belief in the crucial importance of the early years.

Yet there is less provision made for the formal education of the child during infancy than at later periods of his life. Notwithstanding the substantial increase in the number of nurseries and kindergartens in recent years, most children still do not enter school until the age of six. During the exceedingly important period of infancy and young childhood, education is very largely in the hands of parents, most of whom have had no special training in child care.

There is, of course, a wealth of material on this subject in books, articles in specialized magazines, adult evening courses, and so on, but most parents do not make use of these. In fact, many parents do not seek any help in rearing children, except from physicians. However, many of them are interested in material on child care when they happen upon it in the newspapers and popular magazines, to which their reading is largely confined. To determine the amount and kinds of this material, the writer undertook a study of the articles on the care of young children which appeared in newspapers and general magazines during the twenty-five years from 1921 to 1945.

The first problem was the choice of publications from among the many available for study. Three types of appraisal were made in the attempt to choose a representative sample of magazines and newspapers. Circulation figures for the magazines tentatively selected were checked in Ayer's *Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals* for 1945. The judgment of professional workers in adult education, parent education, child

[1] Adapted by R. H. Eckelberry from a Doctor's dissertation, "A Quarter-Century of Advice to Parents of Young Children in Selecting Newspapers and Magazines (1921–45)," 1946. On file in the library of Ohio State University.

development, general education, and journalism was sought. Reports of research on adult reading habits and interests by Buswell, Filmore, Gray and Munroe, Kelly, Nystrom, Strang, Waples and Tyler, and others, were consulted.

The evidence from these sources indicated that the following publications would furnish a representative sample of material on the care of young children available to parents who are not seeking aid but are interested in it when they find it: The general magazines were *Saturday Evening Post*, *Life*, and *Reader's Digest*. From the women's magazines, *Good Housekeeping*, *Ladies' Home Journal*, *and Farm Journal* and *Farmer's Wife* were chosen. The newspapers selected were the *San Francisco Examiner*, the *Columbus Citizen*, the *Springfield* (Massachusetts) *Republican*, and the *Western Star* (Lebanon, Ohio). Of the four newspapers, one is a member of the Hearst chain, published in a large western city; one a Scripps-Howard paper, published in a midwestern city of medium population; one an independent paper of excellent reputation, published in a medium-sized eastern city; and one a member of a chain of country weeklies.

The next step was the determination of the methods to be used in sampling the publications selected. On the basis of a preliminary study of one newspaper and two magazines and after some further trial and error, it was decided to examine every issue of each magazine, a Sunday and a weekday issue of each daily newspaper each month, and one issue each month of the weekly *Western Star*. This sampling method produced a final list of 3,177 issues of magazines and 1,899 issues of newspapers, or a grand total of 5,076 issues.[2]

Each issue selected for examination was studied for articles written for parents on the care and guidance of children under six. A total of 1,042 articles was found. The number of articles devoted to child care was 20.5 per cent ("frequency rating") of the number of issues, or one article to each five issues. The frequency ratings by class of publication and by period are shown in the following table:

	1921–30	1931–40	1941–45
General magazines	2.4	2.6	5.2
Women's magazines	69.5	63.0	66.1
Newspapers	7.1	10.5	26.3

The consistently high frequency rating of the women's maga-

[2] *Reader's Digest* did not begin publication until 1922, and *Life* did not follow its present policies of publication until 1936. The *Farm Journal* and the *Farmer's Wife* were published separately until April, 1939, and then combined.

zines, the increasing rating of the newspapers, and the low rating of the general magazines are evident.

The amount of material presented was determined not only by the number of articles but also by their length. Among the 1,042 articles on child care, the lengths varied from fewer than

TABLE I

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF 1,042 ARTICLES DEALING WITH 28 TOPICS

Topic	Number	Percentage	Rank
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Feeding	319	30.6	1
Physical development	305	29.3	2
Disease	211	20.2	3
Guidance	183	17.6	4
Emotional development	144	13.8	5
Dressing	114	11.0	6
Emotional problems	113	10.8	7
Mental development	102	9.9	8
Toilet habits	99	9.5	9
Play	98	9.5	10
Sleeping	96	9.2	11
Discipline	91	8.7	12
Social development	76	7.6	13
Safety	43	4.1	14
Playmates	30	2.9	15
Books	17	1.6	16
Language	16	1.5	17
Travel	14	1.3	18
Music	12	1.2	19
Art	10	1.0	20
Schools	10	1.0	21
Sex education	8	0.7	22
Stories	5	0.5	23
Dancing	3	0.4	24
Religious education	2	0.2	25
Dramatics	1	0.1	26
Holidays	1	0.1	27
Relatives	0	0.0	28

500 words to more than 2,000. The percentages of articles of different lengths are:

Number of Words	Percentage of Articles
Under 500	29
501–1,000	32
1,001–2,000	30
More than 2,000	9
Total	100

With 61 per cent of the articles 1,000 words or less and an average of one article for every five issues of the publications, it is clear that, regardless of the quality of the content, the amount of material available has been meager.

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Closely related to the matter of the quantity of material available is the amount of space devoted to different topics having to do with child care. The subject-matter of the 1,042 articles was analyzed by means of a check list which included the four areas of physical, social, mental, and emotional development. Under each of these were listed six items representing the most widely discussed phases of that area. Thus, under "physical development," the following items were listed: feeding, sleeping, dressing, toilet habits, disease, and safety. Since some articles discussed areas rather than specific aspects, the four terms, physical, social, mental, and emotional development, also appear as items. Thus the total number of items is 28. Table I shows the number and percentage of the 1,042 articles dealing with each of the 28 items. Since a given article often dealt with more than one item, the total number of articles exceeds 1,042, and the total of the percentages exceeds 100.

Table II shows the number of times items in each of the four areas were discussed in each of three periods. For reasons already given in discussing Table I, the sum of the numbers exceeds the total number of articles. These figures all indicate

TABLE II

Number of Times Items under Each of Four Subject-Matter Areas Were Discussed

Area	1921–30	1931–40	1941–45
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Physical development	489	432	266
Emotional development	180	227	134
Social development	103	93	59
Mental development	75	50	25

that the coverage of the four large developmental areas has been skewed consistently in favor of physical growth. Even under the influence of modern psychology and psychiatry, which stress the consideration of the "whole child," there has been relatively little material offered to parents of young children dealing with the whole child or with mental, social, and emotional growth. There seems to have been no significant response to the increasing resources from which materials might have been drawn in recent years.

Educational-Consultant Service in Planning School Buildings

By WILLIS A. WHITEHEAD

THE major function of school buildings is to implement education at all levels. Few would deny this today, nor would many have denied it in the past, although the educational influences of a building were less significant, as well as fewer in number, than such influences are believed to be today. At any rate, school men, architects, and laymen alike are interested in planning and erecting buildings that are functionally designed for a community-wide education and not for architectural monuments. They are concerned with having the right kinds and the right number of rooms, with arranging and equipping rooms which will be educationally useful, with providing desirable visual and auditory conditions, with procuring large sites for outdoor activities—in short, with providing buildings and sites conducive to effective child development.

The planning of school buildings suited to a modern program of education is a complex undertaking and requires the co-operative efforts of many individuals and groups. There is little need for dwelling at length on supporting evidence for this statement. Most persons are aware that many specific areas are necessary in the school program and that they must operate in different kinds of rooms and with different kinds of equipment. Studies dealing with the widespread influences of environmental conditions on child development are being increasingly publicized. It is quite evident that a school population which is slowly coming to include all the children of all the people, as well as many adults, requires a diversified school program and a variety of school facilities. Many educators are rapidly beginning to realize that since change is the only certainty in education, adaptable facilities are a necessity. It is a commonplace that many types of materials, structural systems, and service systems are available, and that intelligent use of them requires a high degree of technical ability. The people of this country, and particularly the school people, are gradually learning that participation in common enterprises is a necessary characteristic of democratic living. Suffice it to say that school

administrators, teachers, pupils, school custodians and engineers, architects, educational and other technical engineers, city planners, manufacturers, and others have significant contributions to make to the planning process.

It is fairly obvious that effective architectural planning of buildings to implement a complex educational program must be preceded by equally effective educational planning. No architect can plan a school building, or any part of it, for effective use unless he knows specifically the nature of the various uses that are to be made of it. He must have a clear and detailed statement of educational, administrative, operational, and maintenance aspects of the school programs. He must have detailed information concerning quantitative room and space requirements. He can benefit materially from the suggestions of persons familiar with the operation of the school program concerning the characteristics of a school building that are needed for effective implementation of such a program. All educational information that is necessary to intelligent architectural planning must contemplate both present and future needs in the local community.

Architects can hardly be expected to be proficient in the field of educational planning. Their major concerns are the design of buildings and building services to perform specific functions, the preparation of drawings and specifications, and, in many instances, the administration and supervision of the construction phases of a building program. It is quite clear that architects must translate educational specifications into school-building facilities. Few of them, however, are well versed in educational philosophy, are able to interpret this philosophy for determining educational practices in the day-to-day school program, and are capable of formulating the educational requirements for specific school buildings. Educational planning for school buildings is part of the job of educators, and it is a job that educators have frequently assumed would be performed by architects. As a result, it has often not been achieved at all.

Although teachers, pupils, custodians, laymen in the community, and others can and should make significant contributions to educational planning for the establishment of building requirements, school administrators must provide effective

leadership. In the majority of communities in Ohio and elsewhere, the administrator needs competent advice and assistance in organizing planning groups and in guiding their work in the proper direction. In the first place, he is already engaged in performing necessary duties which consume the major part of his time. In the second place, his education and experience too often do not require extensive contact with the problems involved in planning and executing a building program. In the state of Ohio, as well as in many other states, the kinds of advice and assistance that are needed are not available from the State Department of Education or from governmental sources. For many years, the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University has assisted local boards of education in the determination of over-all school-plant needs. Only intermittently have individual members of the Bureau staff dealt with the problems involved in the planning of specific buildings, and then in a limited fashion.

In view of a decided need for competent advice and assistance in the establishment and execution of effective procedures, and in view of the enormous volume of needed school-building construction, the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University late in the year 1945 established a consultant service for the purpose of assisting boards of education, school administrators, and architects in dealing more effectively with the problems involved in planning specific school buildings. In keeping with established policies of the Bureau as regards the other services, this assistance is directly available to boards of education and other public bodies of similar character. It is normally provided after a complete educational survey, or at least a thorough study, of school-plant needs has been made. It is furnished at a nominal cost which covers only the expenses incurred in the use of necessary materials and the services of employees other than regular members of the Ohio State University staff.

In developing a pattern for consultant service in the planning of school buildings, members of the Bureau staff have proceeded in terms of certain basic assumptions which are:

1. A study of school-building needs and formulation of an over-all plan for the entire school plant in a community should precede the planning of specific school buildings.

2. Detailed consideration of current and future educational programs should precede consideration of specific school-building features.
3. The major functions of architects and their staffs are to design buildings and their services for functional use, to draw plans and prepare specifications, and, normally, to administer and supervise construction phases of a building program.
4. The functions of consultants in educational planning are to advise and assist local personnel in determining educational and building needs and to assist architects in interpreting educational specifications.
5. Procedures used in educational planning for the establishment of school-building requirements should be organized to utilize the services of all persons who can make effective contributions to, and can benefit from, participation in the planning process.
6. Initial educational planning should proceed in terms of ideals and without regard for costs.
7. The basic educational specifications for buildings finally adopted should make the best possible use of existing buildings and should be feasible within the limits of funds available.

In view of the preceding assumptions, the pattern established for educational planning for school buildings involves the following stages of work: first, initial planning of procedures and techniques to be followed in terms of local conditions; second, organization and work of local personnel; third, formulation of building requirements and preparation of educational specifications for buildings; fourth, evaluation of architectural plans and specifications; fifth, evaluation of completed buildings in terms of their use.

THE first stage in educational planning for school buildings, when Bureau consultant service is utilized, includes a conference with local administrators, which is held for the purpose of discussing major problems involved, acquainting consultants with local conditions that may not otherwise be discernible, and agreeing on specific procedures and techniques to be used. Prior to this conference, consultants familiarize themselves with recommendations resulting from studies of over-all school-plant needs that ordinarily have already been made. Following the conference, they prepare memoranda for the guidance of local administrators in organizing local personnel to assist in the planning and in assembling data that will be needed for determining building requirements.

THE second stage in educational planning for buildings includes organization and initiation of the work of local planning committees. The pattern of committee organization usually suggested includes a general or over-all co-ordinating committee for the entire building program, a general committee for each division in the vertical organization of the school system (if more than one division is involved in the building program), and special committees dealing with various aspects of the school program and necessary building facilities. Special committees usually are organized to deal with such aspects as administrative practices and facilities, audio-visual programs and facilities, classroom programs and facilities, and so on. The major responsibility for formulating basic concepts underlying education, the purposes of education, and the fundamental implications of these for the school program ordinarily is left to the general committees, although they are urged to utilize the services of all members of the school staff and others in so far as it is possible. Obviously this basic pattern of organization must be varied to suit the local conditions that exist in a given situation.

The selection and appointment of committee members is the responsibility of local administrators, since they are in a better position to know individual interests and abilities than are consultants from outside the community. It is the normal practice to appoint as many members of the school staff (including teachers, custodians, and administrators) and laymen in the community as possible. In addition, pupils take part in the planning whenever they can make significant contributions and whenever their participation serves educational ends.

The work of the various committees is initiated in a general conference with all committee members. During this conference, consultants discuss the need for participation of local personnel in building planning, the over-all pattern of committee organization, the specific functions of each of the various types of committees, and proposed procedures for committee work. Committee members are given an opportunity to ask questions and to propose changes in the general scheme of operation. Following the general conference, consultants meet individually with each of the general committees to explain in greater detail the various procedures that need to be followed in order

to assist the members of these committees with the direction and supervision of the work of special committees. During these meetings, consultants distribute syllabus materials designed to assist committees in their work and strive to come to some agreement with general-committee members about the due date for committee reports.

During the period allotted to committee work, committee members work individually and in groups preparing a detailed statement concerning the specific nature of a desirable educational program and of the necessary building facilities and qualities for implementing this program. In addition, local administrators and special committees assemble data and prepare reports dealing with administrative policies such as pupil-teacher ratios, teacher loads, organization of the lunch program, community use of building facilities, and so on. In certain instances, where consultant service is not preceded by an educational or building survey, additional data necessary in estimating future enrollments are assembled. In cases where secondary-school buildings are involved in the proposed building program, enrollment data for elective and special curricular activities are gathered and reported. In other words, local administrators and local committees assemble all data and proposals that appear to be necessary for effective educational planning of school buildings in terms of a particular program of education with due regard to foreseeable changes in the program. Before final reports are ready, considerable interchange of ideas among special committees and between special and general committees usually is necessary. Furthermore, general committees must coordinate the proposals received from various special committees.

THE third stage in educational planning consists of making a thorough analysis of all available data, formulation of building requirements for the various types of building involved, and preparation of reports to transmit these requirements to the architect. The major responsibility for work involved in this stage rests with consultants. The necessary work includes:

1. A study of the basic plan for meeting local school-plant needs.
2. Analysis of committee reports and other data furnished.
3. Making of enrollment estimates for each grade and for elective and special curricular activities.
4. Calculation of room and space requirements.

5. Determination of the best uses for existing facilities, where additions are involved.
6. Preparation of a statement of quantitative room and space requirements for individual buildings (program of requirements).
7. Preparation of a report of qualitative building requirements for various types of buildings (a guide for planning).
8. Preparation of outline specifications and suggestive sketch designs for special features and equipment.

At various times during the execution of these procedures, consultants confer with local administrators and planning committees concerning agreement on proposals for local needs.

THE fourth stage in educational planning calls for the evaluation of architectural plans and specifications. Consultants usually need to work with architects during the development of tentatively sketched plans in order to help them interpret the prepared educational specifications. An architect working on the plans for an individual building normally develops a number of schemes in order to study exhaustively possible solutions to the problems of design. All schemes are carefully checked by consultants and the local administrator for conformity with educational specifications. As soon as a basic scheme has been agreed upon by the local board of education, the local administrator, consultants, and local planning committees are also asked to check the plans. During the detailed development of basic plans and outline specifications, consultants and local personnel confer with the architect as the need arises. In addition, consultants assist local committees with the preparation of equipment layouts for special rooms. When everyone concerned is satisfied that the basic plans incorporate all the predetermined educational specifications in so far as possible, and these plans are approved by the board of education, the architect ordinarily is instructed to proceed with working drawings. When working drawings and specifications are completed, a final check for conformity with educational specifications is made by consultants and local planning committees.

THE final stage in educational planning is concerned with the evaluation of completed buildings. No planning is complete without some attempt to judge the accuracy of conclusions reached during earlier stages of the planning proc-

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Curriculums for Teacher Education

By JOHN E. HORROCKS

OF WHAT should a curriculum for the professional education of teachers consist? The answer to this question lies in the answer to another, What makes a good teacher? Unfortunately, the latter question has never been completely or successfully answered. Attempts have not been lacking. There have been, and continue to be, many. The problem has long been a popular one with faculty members, school administrators, and doctoral candidates. The great common factor that has been found in research on the subject is the low, though often positive, coefficients of correlation which exist between what is assumed to be good teaching ability and various measures such as information, marks in practice teaching, experience, courses taken, and so on. To increase the complexity, there are studies in which elaborate regression equations have been used without convincing results. Rating scales have been attempted. Some investigators have used a negative approach by trying to find the characteristics of an unsuccessful teacher.

Teaching is a complex situation containing many interrelated and interacting variables. It is the action and reaction of one individual and his background upon many individuals and their backgrounds and vice versa. These interactions and reactions take place in constantly growing and expanding situations which are never twice alike and in widely separated situations which are not even similar.

The difficulty in analyzing the characteristics of a good teacher is that although most persons have approached the analysis from the aspect of many isolated variables — a teacher should be thus, and thus, and thus—there is no single factor or series of factors that makes for a good teacher. Rather, a good teacher is the product of a complex of situations or factors, intermixed, and ever changing. There is no such thing as a good teacher *per se*.

Thus, the attempt to determine what makes a good teacher by isolating particular characteristics is uselesss or completely artificial. Teaching is not done in terms of isolated aspects and individuals and cannot be so analyzed. The problem must be approached from the standpoint of the whole. There are

two approaches to use in describing a good teacher. One is objective, the other philosophical.

The objective approach collects facts and analyzes and synthesizes them. It postulates the characteristics of a good teacher upon a frequency table of activities, and a curriculum upon supposed ability (as demonstrated by course credits amassed) to participate in such activity. One might approach the problem objectively thus—What do teachers do? What may they be called upon to do? The next step would be to break down each activity into qualities required for success, analyze and make a mosaic of characteristics needed, and insert this mosaic into a curriculum. Unfortunately, this approach returns us to our original difficulty, that of segmentation.

The other approach, the philosophical, is better adapted to the handling of a complex matter. Through this approach it is possible to describe, to analyze, and to synthesize intelligently, with the purpose of arriving at premises and of incorporating our curriculum around such premises. With our present knowledge, this would appear to be a more fruitful possibility than that of segmentation. Any answer to our question must, in all probability, be based upon philosophical grounds.

THIS, then, has been our difficulty. We have tried to analyze objectively before we have properly or coherently analyzed philosophically. Throughout history, philosophy has been the springboard for objective research. In education, faced by practical demands to do something practical at once, and influenced by the desire to prove ourselves professionally and by the opinion that respectability rests upon objectivity, we have endeavored to avoid the philosophical method and made a shopping list of things that must be attempted immediately.

Having oriented ourselves philosophically, we may then make an objective analysis of our philosophical structure and move from there into our research and implementation. Perhaps we can even some day measure what does make a good teacher, though instead of "what makes a good teacher" we shall probably speak of "what interacting hierarchy makes a good teacher." Thorndike has said that if a thing exists it may be measured, providing there exist the proper measuring instruments. Our problem is to measure the complex by the complex, in terms of the complex. A simple measurement of a com-

plex whole has yet to be achieved and there is little reason to suspect that it ever will. Instead of asking, What are the characteristics of a good teacher? the question should be, What is the complex hierarchy of variables which allows a trained (or untrained) individual to inspire or inculcate knowledge and techniques, or the desire for such knowledge and techniques, into an ever different series of individuals?

Of course, at this point we find solace in reminding ourselves that we have to teach something, and, if we retire completely into our ivory towers until we have all the answers, nothing will be taught to anyone and we will eventually have no teachers. However, this discussion is not intended to imply that nothing must be done before all of the answers are in. It is simply a summary of past efforts, and a plea for the reorientation of our approach to curriculum construction. Fortunately, there are already the beginnings of such a reorientation.

Over the last quarter of a century many sincere and helpful efforts have been made to improve the curriculums for the professional education of teachers. There have been real attempts to answer the questions, What knowledge is of most worth for the prospective teacher? and What shall be the most effective methodology for the inculcation of the knowledge, skills, and techniques that are decided upon?

The answers to these questions have been as various as the persons who have attempted to answer them. There has been broad agreement in some areas and violent disagreement in others. In attempting to find answers, some investigators have surveyed and analyzed present practice in teacher education. Others have directly analyzed the duties of teachers and have obtained opinions from teachers and school administrators. Others have attempted to analyze the elements that go into the making of a good teacher. Some have attempted to synthesize the opinions of the experts.

On the whole, much has been accomplished and much learned, but, fundamentally, the two major questions have remained unanswered. The way has been made easier, the pathway is beginning to take shape, but a great deal of work remains to be done before we can find answers to our questions.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

Teamwork Needed

Most persons recognize that both the lay public and the education profession should participate in determining educational policies and programs. If education is to move forward as it should, the best thinking of both groups is needed. But apparently many persons do not recognize the need for close co-operation between the two groups. We hear statements to the effect that the public should determine the broad objectives of an educational program and the profession should have responsibility for developing programs and procedures which embody these.

There is a sense in which this principle is valid. But it is often stated in such a way as to imply more or less separation between the work of the lay public and that of the professional specialists in the development of educational programs. The public determines the broad objectives and then experts take over and implement these. In other words, the rôles of the public and the specialists are played in different acts of the drama.

This is an inaccurate and misleading description of the process as it should operate. The experts and laymen should work together throughout; their rôles are simultaneous and closely related. The parts they should play are not unlike those of the architect and the owner in building a house. Conceivably, the owner might determine his needs in terms of number and size of rooms and the total amount of money he was prepared to spend, and then turn over detailed plans to the architect, who would carry on from that point.

Actually, of course, if the owner and the architect are wise, they will sit down together to discuss the needs of the former. The architect will be able to suggest desirable features that the owner would otherwise not have thought about. By means of this give and take between layman and expert, the general features to be included in the building will be determined. The architect will then prepare one or more tentative plans which he will discuss with the owner. In this discussion the need for additional features probably will be brought to light. Out of

such a continuous process of interchange of ideas between the client and the expert, a final plan will emerge and will be embodied in working drawings and specifications and, eventually, in the house itself. It is in this way that the thinking of the architect and the owner can be most effective.

A board of education and its superintendent of schools should work together in somewhat the same way—free give and take between laymen and expert—to improve the school program. In this case, unlike that of building a house, the job is never complete. But such co-operation between the board and the superintendent is not enough: a wider representation of both the lay public and the teaching profession is needed. It is here that the Parent-Teacher Association has its great opportunity. But too often the P.T.A. meets merely to hear speeches, raise money for band uniforms, or enjoy a social evening. Useful as these things are, they do not constitute an adequate program.

In most cases, the P.T.A. could function most effectively through joint committees of teachers and laymen, working on the improvement of various aspects of the school program. On some committees, at least, pupils should be represented. These committees should report to the association, and it should discuss the reports freely in open meeting. Both in the committees and the larger meetings, the laymen and teachers would stimulate each other in thinking, and thus make for progress.

What is most needed is not a mere allocation of responsibility, as between laymen and educators, but teamwork. Here lies the great opportunity of the P.T.A.

R.H.E.

READINGS

Books to Read

LEIDECKER, KURT F. *Yankee Teacher: the Life of William Torrey Harris.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1946. xx+648 pp.

William Torrey Harris began teaching in the Franklin Grammar School, one of the public elementary schools of St. Louis, in 1858, and in ten years, serving meanwhile as elementary-school principal and assistant superintendent, he became superintendent of schools (1868). During the twelve years in which he held this office, Harris and the St. Louis schools acquired a national reputation for educational leadership and progress. In the decade after he resigned the superintendency, he was a "pivotal figure" of the Concord School of Philosophy which had been projected by Emerson and Amos Bronson Alcott; and from 1889, Harris was for seventeen years the United States Commissioner of Education. From 1870 to the close of his life he was one of the most active, influential, and distinguished members of the National Education Association.

Unlike Horace Mann and Francis Wayland Parker, who were perhaps equally prominent as public-school men, Mr. Harris was a philosopher and a scholar. He was a founder and promoter of philosophical societies, founder and editor of the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, translator and interpreter of Hegel, and editor of the "International Education Series" and of *Webster's New International Dictionary*.

This is the first acceptable biography of Harris. The very learned author had access to extensive collections of letters and other private papers and a wealth of official documents. He was aided by Edith Davidson Harris, a daughter of the subject, who contributed from her memory of her father. The book provides not only a biography of Harris but also some account of the condition of public education in St. Louis and the United States, in his time. The attempt to popularize this scholarly research work is not entirely successful. For the general reader there is too much detail; in particular, there are too many names of persons who played very small parts in the drama in which Harris had the lead. There are too many unexplained allusions. There are also curious omissions, such as the dates of the subject's birth and death. There are some unhappy slips. One such occurs on page 159 where it is said that the St. Louis school board was "self-perpetuating." The following page states correctly that the members were elected, two from each ward, by the voters, for terms of three years.

The somewhat undigested state of the book may be explained, as the preface indicates, by the fact that it was released for publication, under pressure from the publisher, while the author was serving in the Army Air Forces at Wright Field. The proofs were not read with sufficient care. The so-called index covers barely two pages. It would seem that in such matters a publisher has a moral responsibility to those who purchase his product.

The book is, however, an important contribution to the understanding of American education and thought in the nineteenth century. We have now for

a long generation lived in a post-Harris and anti-Harris era. The leadership which Harris had exercised for an equal period was captured first by the Herbartians and then by the progressives under Parker and Dewey. Hegelianism was swept off the platform. The old psychology gave way to the new psychologies of Hall, James, "the Chicago School," and the behaviorists. The child became the center of interest.

Did we pay a price for these changes; and were they worth the price? The answer that Harris would have given to this question is contained in the very first remarks that he addressed to the National Education Association (1870). The previous speaker had proclaimed the importance of direct experience. Harris stressed the importance of thinking. He said that education should proceed from the known to the unknown; and that the danger is that we shall deal only with the near-at-hand, and with facts, not meanings; that we shall not lead the student to deepen his understanding. In this way, he said, we make education seem too easy.

H. G. Good

Buswell, G.T. *Non-Oral Reading: a Study of Its Use in the Chicago Public Schools.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. viii+56 pp. (Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 60)

In the fall of 1935, a new method of teaching reading—the non-oral method—was used with one first-grade class in Chicago. This was the beginning of an experiment sponsored by James E. McDade, who was at that time assistant superintendent of schools in the city. The experiment was limited to Grades I and II. No reading in experimental classes was oral during these grades.

> There was a great deal of oral language work, . . . carried on entirely separate from the classes in reading. The essential purpose . . . was to enable children to get meaning from the visual symbols without the intervention of oral pronunciation and without employing inner speech. Consequently, instruction was carried on through picture dictionaries, through pantomime activities, and through other ingenious ways by which the meaning of words might be made clear without use of oral pronunciation. Reading achievement was measured by the responses of the children to what was read rather than by having them say the words aloud.
>
> The materials . . . had to be constructed by the teachers, since no ready-made supply was available. . . . The children participated in the preparation of much of the material needed, thereby getting training in art, handwriting, and composition, as well as in reading. Throughout the experiment the objective was to enable the children to "think" the meaning without saying the words (pages 2–3).

This plan of beginning reading spread through the school system; in 1944 it was used in 137 of the 346 elementary schools in the city. More than seventy thousand pupils have been taught reading in the experimental classes since 1935.

In this monograph, Mr. Buswell makes six comparisons in the records of 465 sixth-grade pupils who had belonged to non-oral groups in Grades I and II with similar characteristics of 465 closely matched pupils who had been taught by oral-reading methods. The comparisons included scores on an objective reading test, number of grades repeated, number of grades skipped, and amount of lip-reading. In the last two comparisons, differences favoring the non-oral groups were statistically significant. However, there was more lip-

movement seen in the non-oral group than "should be expected in view of the fact that suppression of vocalization is one of the crucial factors in this method" (page 21). In a similar comparison of 330 matched pairs of third-grade children, Mr. Buswell again found that when all the paired pupils were considered "the non-oral pupils showed slightly more lip-movements than did the oral pupils (page 27).

Mr. Buswell concludes that the non-oral method achieved as good results as those achieved by the oral method. He believes that the non-oral possesses certain values which justify its continuance.

In the opinion of the reviewer, the lip-movements of the children in both groups—non-oral and oral—are signs of poor control of the mechanics of reading. Each child who moved his lips was too busy with the pronunciation of words: he was reading a text which was beyond his powers of interpretation through silent reading, even beyond his powers of invisible inner speech. The child trained in non-oral methods who used lip-movements showed that he was in the habit of using inner speech.

Although somewhat disturbed by the unwelcome lip-movements of the non-oral group, Mr. Buswell says that "the non-oral method . . . is a logical step in the evolution of the teaching of reading" (page 44). Is it a step or is it a jump? The child is expert in his use of language when he is ready to learn to read. Will he not more naturally associate the words he uses in talking with their printed forms if he first interprets these forms orally? When he has become proficient in orally interpreting printed words, he can then pass to the more literate habit of omitting oral speech, as well as inner speech, to the silent reading of the skilled reader. Educators can learn much about reading from the linguists. Mr. Bloomfield of Yale criticized non-oral methods of teaching reading in the *Elementary English Review* in May, 1942, as follows: "Nothing could be less in accord with the nature of our system of writing or with the reading process such as, in the end, must be acquired" (page 184).

Mr. Buswell is to be commended for his careful study of this unusual method of teaching reading. However, might not the results in the classrooms using oral-reading methods have been beneficially affected by the use of the variety of ingenious methods which were used in the non-oral reading classes? The common objective in both types of reading is the getting of meaning, which is the essential element in all competent reading. To the reviewer it seems as if the meaning-getting aspects of reading were more emphasized in the instruction of non-oral groups. A true comparison of the two methods could be obtained by setting up a study in which the chief variable was oral versus non-oral methods, using the same ingenious devices to supplement instruction in each group.

JOSEPHINE H. MACLATCHY

COOPER, RUSSELL M., *et al. Better Colleges: Better Teachers.* New York: Macmillan Company, 1944. viii+167 pp. (Paper bound).

This is the report of a co-operative study of the education of teachers in 28 liberal-arts colleges in the territory of the North Central Association. The study was made under the auspices of the Committee on the Preparation of High-School Teachers in Colleges of Liberal Arts and is an outgrowth of earlier studies of teacher education made by the Association. The participating colleges were selected in May, 1941. Each of them, under the leadership of a

local director appointed by it, examined its special needs, determined the areas for most fruitful study, and worked out its own method of attack. "There was no attempt to develop general studies common to all colleges, though naturally certain basic problems were independently chosen by many institutions" (page 9). At the end of the academic year 1942-43, the grant from the General Education Board expired. Many of the colleges were eager to continue the study and agreed to meet the cost themselves; hence the project was continued with some changes in the member institutions. College representatives shared ideas and experiences in four summer workshops, held at the University of Minnesota from 1941–44.

This book is a report of the studies which were made in the 28 colleges during the period covered by the grant from the General Education Board. They extend over a wide range and are briefly summarized here in seven chapters, the titles of which are: The Pursuit of Objectives, Building the Curriculum, The Improvement of College Instruction, The College Personnel Program, Professional Work in Teacher Education, The Contribution of Extra-curricular Activities, and Working with College Faculties.

This volume provides encouraging evidence of vitality in these liberal-arts institutions, and a good sample of the things with which forward-looking colleges are at present concerned.

R. H. ECKELBERRY

REED, ANNA Y. *Occupational Placement.* Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1946. xi+350 pp.

This book is concerned primarily with the history and organization of employment services. It is not a guide to individual placement methods but is, rather, a manual of administrative considerations and procedures. In addition to the chapters on history and organization methods, there is a section devoted to placement procedures—securing applicants, securing openings, and referring applicants. Another section deals with the problems of special services, such as junior-placement services and veteran's placement services. A complex array of historical and technical data is vividly portrayed in terms of the march of social events and the activities of human beings, without any effort at popularization. The book is unusual—a surprise—considered in terms of literary excellence.

RALPH M. STOGDILL

VALENTINE, P.F., editor. *Twentieth Century Education: Recent Developments in American Education.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1946. ix+655 pp.

This volume is intended as "a contemporary and authoritative survey of education in its various aspects," for those "who want a view of the whole picture" (page 1). It contains thirty chapters under the general headings of Theory and Philosophy, Psychology in Education, Science and Education, Education and Society, and The School and Its Problems. The editor contributes the introductory chapter on "American Education Today," and another on "Democracy and Education"; each of the other chapters is by a different author. The topics were selected so as to present a "cross-section" rather than "an arbitrary unification of educational thought" (page 5).

Apparently each contributor expounded his subject in his own way, pretty

much without reference to what the others were saying. The footnotes supply an occasional cross reference to another chapter.

Obviously, treatments as brief as the chapters of this book can deal with their topics in only a general way. But in many cases the contributors have succeeded in giving an informative account; so the book will probably serve a useful purpose. There are a good many typographical errors and other evidences of careless editing. The review copy is poorly printed.

R. H. ECKELBERRY

BRIDGES, CLARK D. *Job Placement of the Physically Handicapped.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946. xiii+329 pp.

"The principal theme of this book is that physical disabilities need not be a work handicap. Successful employment of disabled persons is accomplished by appraising the abilities and limitations of workers, appraising the requirements of jobs, and matching them for the greatest possible efficiency" (page v).

The book is written as a practical guide for the employer or executive who is responsible for the hiring, selection, placement, or supervision of handicapped workers. Separate chapters are devoted to disabilities connected with vision, hearing, skeletal system and skin, respiratory system, circulatory system, gastro-intestinal system, genito-urinary system, and endocrine system. The book is clearly written, and actually answers the questions that one hopes to find answered in a manual of this sort.

RALPH M. STOGDILL

JENKINS, FRANK C.; KENT, DRUZILLA C.; SIMS, VERNER M.; AND WATERS, EUGENE A. *Coöperative Study for the Improvement of Education: a Staff Report of the Southern Association Study in Secondary Schools and Colleges.* [Durham, North Carolina, Duke University Press]: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1947. iv+242 pp. (Reprinted from the *Southern Association Quarterly*, X, February and August, 1946.)

This volume is a report of a regional study of the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges which was designed to explore ways of improving secondary and higher education. The study was patterned somewhat after the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association; the most significant difference was that no attempt was made to set up control groups for the purpose of evaluating the effectiveness of changes made in the schools.

The study began officially in 1938 and extended through 1945. It was carried on under the auspices of the Association's Commission on Curriculum Problems and Research appointed by the Association, and was financed largely by the General Education Board assisted by the Association.

Initially a small staff was selected to work with 35 secondary schools whose applications were accepted by the directing committee. This staff was thoroughly committed to the "scientific method" of working with schools.

> The staff members went into a school to help (to work with) a teacher or group of leaders in formulating, developing, or evaluating adjustments in the school program. They went to help teachers achieve the objectives which they, the teachers, had set up, not for the purpose of "telling teachers what to do" in order to improve their educational programs. . . . The staff members had for their purpose the exploration of a way of working rather than the accomplishment of any specific job (page 98).

In the light of this quotation, it is to be expected that a considerable portion of the volume would be devoted to the method of working with schools. As a matter of fact, this point is so frequently reiterated that the reader begins to wonder if the committee is not attempting to justify, unconsciously, perhaps, the lack of concrete accomplishments.

True, many instances of school improvement are related, but the reader is impressed by the fact that no comprehensive programs for the improvement of secondary education in the postwar period emerged. Perhaps it is unfair to conclude that the overemphasis upon "process" was responsible for the lack of tangible results. Certain it is that the principal contribution of the volume is the light it throws upon the democratic way of working with individuals and groups. It should be read by all administrators and supervisors who have a responsibility for improving secondary education.

HAROLD ALBERTY

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Educational-Consultant Service in Planning School Buildings

[*Continued from page 185*]

ess. Consultants, therefore, need to assist local personnel in evaluating buildings after they are in use, in terms of their implementation of a desirable educational program.

In addition to the various procedures enumerated in the preceding paragraphs, consultants provide a local board of education and the administrator with advice and assistance concerning the following matters: first, determination of a desirable organization for the design and construction phases of a building program; second, procurement of technical consultants for assistance with certain problems of design which have a bearing on educational uses; third, preparation of a building-program budget; fourth, determination of procedures for selecting architects.